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ABSTRACT

This study deals with the problems of teacher education programs and suggests some methods for improvement. The pressures and restrictions currently levied on the field of teacher education are discussed, and an examination is given of various education departments' admission policies and procedures. Profiles of education students and faculty members are constructed. Difficulties involved with the acquisition and supervision of clinical experience are considered. A plea is made for the innovation of teacher education programs; both structural solutions and short-term strategies for this are suggested. (LH)

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IMPROVING TEACHER EDUCATION

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This paper draws on data reported in Preservice Teacher Education by Bruce R. Joyce, Sam J. Yarger, Kenneth R. Howey, Karen M. Harbeck, and Thomas N. Kluwin (Palo Alto, CA, 1977). Available from the authors or ERIC (#SP 011 438, March 1978).

The research documented in that report was conducted as a subcontract with Lewin and Associates of Washington, D.C.. Its contents represent part of the findings of a nationwide survey of institutions, programs, students, and faculty in teacher preparation programs.

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FOREWORD

At a recent meeting of teacher educators, a distinguished professor of education related to a group of colleagues an experience that underlines the pervasive dilemmas of teacher preparation.

This veteran teacher educator lives in an affluent suburb not far from his university home. He started the story by reporting that his local school district has been experiencing great difficulty obtaining a budget--in fact, within a period of two months referendums containing the budget were rejected on two separate occasions. Because he was recognized as an experienced educator and respected in his community, the citizen group formed to help the superintendent obtain the budget asked him if he would host some Sunday-afternoon "coffees" in an effort to swing public opinion. The professor explained that he supported school budgets almost with knee-jerk regularity; it just wasn't his style to oppose schools. He wondered if he would be an effective advocate, but he agreed nonetheless.

As friends and neighbors convened at his house for the series of gatherings, he began to list their concerns and expectations on scraps of paper, noting that they were often voiced in tones of frustration. After the final meeting, he assembled his bits of paper and decided to find out just what it was that this youngish to middle-aged, relatively affluent, upwardly mobile, professional group of parents and citizens wanted from their schools.

The results were, at least to him, startling. The citizenry of this suburban community were not looking for complex, sophisticated, or monu-

mental achievements on the part of their schools. Rather, and he cautioned us to remember that he was talking about young executives, lawyers, managers, and people in those walks of life, their expectations were clearcut, straightforward, and rather "unprogressive." Basically, this experienced observer of schooling discovered that the citizens wanted--

- Basic skills, including reading, mathematics, and communication skills (in the secondary schools they wanted content)
- Classrooms and schools that were neat, orderly, and run in a well-managed, almost businesslike manner
- Specific remedial treatments for children who were having difficulty
- Evaluations that were publicly communicated in straightforward terms
- Attention to basic values (e.g., honesty, respect, patriotism, etc.)

The old gentlemen reported that if he could have stopped there, perhaps it would have been "sortable" in his mind, and he could have moved ahead in the business of training teachers. However, he noted that on his return to campus the next day, his monthly copy of "Courts and Schools" was waiting for him in his mail box. Sipping his morning's first cup of coffee, he spent twenty minutes of the day reviewing that publication, which is devoted to relating the impact of laws and court decisions on education. Because his mind was into making lists of expectations for schools, he began jotting down concerns which were reflected in judicial decisions. A totally different array emerged than the list he had generated the night before. It seemed that in one form or another, schools (and to a large degree that means teachers) were being told often by court decision, that they must:

- Teach multicultural content (in more than one language when necessary
- Mainstream (though he wasn't sure what that meant)
- Purge curriculum, instructional materials, and teaching of all sexist content
- And, all of these must be done in desegregated schools.

The old gentlemen just sat there, grey hair shining, eyes sparkling, a wry smile creasing his lips. He allowed a few seconds to pass, obviously allowing for his listeners to absorb the contradictions that he had presented. And, he wasn't through yet. After his morning coffee, he had attended a meeting of the curriculum committee of his teacher education department. Pointing out that a very standard teacher education curriculum was in place in his institution, he noted that the agenda for the meeting included only a proposal to examine how three basic concerns could somehow be incorporated into the required program for elementary and secondary preservice teachers, including:

- Personal development--a group process approach
- Controversial issues in education
- The rights of children in school

By this time his listeners were well aware of the intention of his story, and responses ranged from soft chuckles or wholehearted belly laughs to redfaced anger. The resulting discussion was more enlightening than the brief story by itself. Even within what one would expect to be a relatively homogeneous group of teacher educators, there wasn't a semblance of agreement on the best way to analyze and understand the message that the elderly teacher educator had been attempting to communicate. The listeners

were as confused as the story.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

At least two points emerge from the old gentleman's story and the reaction to it. First, many different sources are ready and willing to describe the role of a teacher, and they are not necessarily consistent in their views concerning what teachers ought to be doing. Second, it is obviously impossible for any contemporary preservice teacher education program to equip teachers with all of the skills that are proposed. Imagine an elementary teacher who is competent to teach reading, communication skills, and mathematics; can organize and manage a self-contained classroom with 30 youngsters; is able to identify specific learning problems and to help children overcome them; is competent to assess learning, evaluate programs, record and communicate evaluative information to appropriate sources; can build into programs strategies for inculcating basic values such as honesty, respect, patriotism; integrates culturally pluralistic material in the curriculum (bilingually, if necessary); can manage and instruct handicapped children in the classroom; is competent to purge the classroom environment of sexism; has undergone personal growth processes and is competent to help children do the same; can deal with social/political/philosophical controversies in education; and who can do all of the above with a sensitivity to the rights of 25 to 30 children.

To even the casual observer, these constitute an impossible set of expectations. Yet, by virtue of the certification laws in most states (and the views of many citizens), we provide graduates of our teacher education programs with a credential which implicitly states that they can do all of the above, and even more. An elementary certificate says to the public that

the holder can teach any youngster between the ages of approximately five and twelve anything, under any circumstances, at any time.

Reflection on the potpourri of demands raises a multitude of interesting questions. Even if it is acknowledged that no program can meet the expectations of all those who generate duties for teachers, teacher education must have a reasonable starting point for sorting out the confusion, especially in a time when serious criticism about the size, nature, and vigor of the enterprise for preparing teachers is being leveled. Let us begin with the following questions--

- What are the pressures and constraints impinging on teacher education?
- Who are its people, students, and faculty?
- What is the structure and content of present programs?
- What is the present capability for change?

Each of these broad questions will be examined in the following pages.

INTRODUCTION

This paper deals with the process of changing preservice teacher education. It assesses the present state of preservice education, pressures to change it, research and development capability within its community, and presents a series of propositions on which its improvement might be based. The paper draws primarily on a nationwide survey of faculty, students, and education unit heads and a random sample of 238 of the more than 1400 institutions which presently prepare teachers. The findings from the survey have been analyzed, put together with other studies of preservice education and combined with the clinical experience of the authors.

The results of the analysis can be expressed in a series of propositions, first, about the present state of preservice education and, second, about bases on which a reform effort might be constructed. The authors believe that preservice education should be the object of a massive reform effort and that the conditions are ripe within the society for such an effort to receive support enabling it to be successful.

Proposition I

Preservice education is presently subject to vast pressures to change. Some of these pressures are radical--they would extend it and inservice education into the arena of school improvement in a wide variety of areas, ranging from the generation of alternative schools to the inclusion of educational provisions for persons previously segregated as "handicapped" to the rejuvenation of multicultural and bilingual education. Other pressures are conservative. They would focus preservice and inservice education more narrowly

on the "basic skills" functions of the school and concentrate on the improvement of the school on a relatively primitive industrial model.

Proposition II

There are considerable obstacles to reform in teacher education. Certification and accreditation, while they have served the purpose of extending and upgrading the education of the teacher, apparently have powerful normative influence on programs. Colleges and universities do not regard their primary missions as the preparation of teachers, so they tie programs tightly to the structure of higher education and provide only a very limited amount of professional education. Trade schools not infrequently provide a year or more of intensive 40 hours a week training of artisans. On these same terms, the average teacher preparation program is the equivalent of only about six months of full time training.

Declining enrollments in the public schools and changes in the supply and demand picture with respect to teacher employment have caused policymakers to wonder whether the resources provided teacher training should not be reduced radically.

Proposition III

The variation among teacher training programs across the nation is not impressive. Programs appear to be tied quite tightly to the present teacher roles and the minimum standards of certification and accreditation. Very few programs have gone beyond these minimum requirements to generate radical alternatives.

Proposition IV

Teacher education is still a labor-intensive operation. Most of the technical improvements in training have not been implemented on a wide scale.

Few programs use the more powerful tools such as microteaching and simulation to help novice teachers acquire skills in a systematic way. Teacher educators, knowledgeable as they are about training and education in general, have not applied their technology to the preparation of their teacher colleagues. In general, military and industrial applications of training technology apply principles of learning and training more systematically than does the preparation of teachers.

Proposition V

There is relatively little research and development capability in most of the institutions that prepare teachers. In addition, most of the research and development capability that exists within the education community is not directed toward teacher preparation. The knowledge base in the field is not increasing rapidly. The recent movement of competency based teacher education was not implemented effectively in very many institutions. We conjecture that the primary reason for this, besides ideological dispute, is the lack of research and development capability to bring to pass on a single institution base the kind of large scale reform which CBTE represented. We further conjecture that for some time to come, it will require cross-institutional cooperation to amass the R and D capability necessary to reform the education of teachers.

Proposition VI

The supply and demand issue with respect to teachers is exceedingly complex. Were teacher preparation work tightly tied to school improvement plans, it might be that many more teachers would be required, playing larger and more complex roles in educational change. We are not certain that there is a teacher oversupply with respect to any criteria that considers the quality

of education for children.

Proposition VII

The role of the teacher is presently construed as impossibly complex. Preservice education has been stressed to the breaking point in an effort to prepare in such a short period of time personnel who can carry out such a complex role.

Proposition VIII

The faculties of education are devoted to teaching and to the schools. Faculties are widely experienced in schooling and in general, rose through the ranks of school personnel.

Proposition IX

In general, students are quite satisfied with their teacher preparation at the time that they graduate. Although in later years they will criticize the preparation that they have had, they indicate a strongly positive attitude toward their experiences and the faculty who work with them.

Proposition X

There are relatively few institutions which maintain school improvement teacher training linkages. Although hundreds of school districts cooperate with the higher education institutions that prepare teachers, the linkages which have been established have not been turned toward reciprocal research and development. In other words, efforts to improve the school do not ordinarily improve the education of the teacher and vice versa.

Proposition XI

Each of these propositions is based on the optimistic assumption that the vast resources of schools of education, school districts, and teachers can be brought together more coherently and that the problems of preservice education are solveable. However, effective solutions will require substantial restructuring of the major components of entire preservice education enterprise, and the formulation of new relationships between selection admissions questions, preservice programs, school improvement efforts and staff development programs. No single agency can deal with all of these at the same time. Collaboration among states, school districts, colleges, teacher organizations and other professional organizations is necessary in order to develop more comprehensive approaches to effect needed change.

Proposition XII

The broad and initial certificate qualifying personnel for the multiple roles of teaching should be replaced with a license which simply certifies an introduction to the profession of teaching. The license would qualify persons to obtain positions as interns and qualify for clinical training.

Proposition XIII

The major clinical training would be conducted in training centers operated jointly by states, school districts, colleges and teachers. It would be tailored to the teaching roles in specific school districts. On moving to a new setting, or with a change in curriculum or organization, a teacher would enter a period of fresh training for the new role to be assumed. Thus, clinical

training would be career long and job specific.

Proposition XIV

Coalitions between school districts and higher education institutions need to be established to create research and development units capable of operating simultaneously for school improvement and for improving the education of the teacher.

Proposition XV

Higher education personnel need to generate inservice programs for themselves in order to increase their capability to engage in educational research and development, especially with respect to training practices in helping personnel engage in programs of school improvement. Higher education personnel know and understand the schools and the normative practices of teacher education but relatively few are experienced in the technology of training or major research and development efforts.

These propositions are the substance of the arguments presented in the paper which follows. On the part of the authors it represents several years of intensive analysis of preservice and inservice programs, a good deal of extrapolation from data describing present practices, and a strong belief that the many good people who work in today's schools and colleges can, with good will, enormous efforts at retraining themselves, and a commitment to the improvement of the society through education, make a vast contribution at this time. There are presently more than 40,000 education professors, more than 2 million classroom teachers and over 200,000 administrators and support personnel in schools. Thus, we are part of a tremendous enterprise, which in many ways, is presently a sleeping giant, containing within it enormous potential once it is aroused.

SECTION ONE

EXISTING CONDITIONS

Confining Pressures

In recent years teacher education has been submitted to a variety of pressures to change its student body, its preclinical and clinical programs, and its capability to respond to social needs. Yet, it operates in a context that virtually assures the changes in it will be gradual. Its very size assures that--it is truly massive.[1] Additionally, many individual programs are very large, and any change must be introduced in such a way as to avoid dislocating the academic programs of thousands of students. Abrupt changes in admission requirements or relationships with the public schools could aversely affect a great many students who have the expectation of a coherent program that leads toward graduation and eventual employment.

Furthermore, teacher education lives in a context of institutions of higher education. Most of these have established orderly, yet time consuming processes for initiating change. Proposed changes are submitted to several levels of committees, screened for available resources, and their impact on other aspects of the institution must be determined. Teacher education has been profitable to many institutions of higher education and changes that could affect this profitability are scrutinized with great care by the persons responsible for the financial health of their colleges and universities.

Moreover, it is necessary for teacher education programs to be coherently

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[1] Presently there are more than two million public school classroom teachers and over a quarter of a million support personnel and administrators. Each year over 40,000 education professors prepare over 200,000 new graduates in education.

related to the public schools of the nation. The student teachers and graduates of the teacher education programs must be able to operate (even when they are regarded as "change agents") within the context of the public schools into which they go. Since the public schools will eventually employ most teacher candidates, any radical changes in preparation have to be intelligible to these future employers. For example, the teacher training faculty may wish to institute a program to prepare persons to work on teaching teams, but most public schools do not have team teaching, and the graduating student must be able to operate in other organizational contexts as well or his/her future is jeopardized.

Moreoever, institutional programs have to be related to certification requirements and accreditation standards. Both certification and accreditation have been developed and elaborated on in this century in order to bring about higher standards of professional preparation, and to bring greater professional status to schools of education and their graduates. Although both processes provide considerable latitude for innovation, the probable overall tendency is to produce relatively normative programs. Certification across the nation displays relatively few differences state by state, thus shaping standards which draw programs into defined patterns.

The teacher candidate him/herself also exerts pressure not to deviate greatly from normative patterns. Each one is anxious that his/her credential be one that will permit migration to new cities and states, and will resist program variation which threatens the intelligibility of the credential.

All these factors--size, the need to attend to the higher education context, the need to be intelligible to the public schools, the need to articulate programs into certification and accreditation patterns, and the desire of the teacher candidate to be marketable,--mitigate against rapid change.

Our overall impression is that teacher education programs operate within these contexts in an adaptive way.[2] Changes are relatively gradual and are carried out in such a way as to cause the least amount of disruption to institutions, students, faculty, and schools.

Pressures Toward Change

There are at least five sources which are presently operating to press the organization of teacher education programs toward change. These are:

- Continuing criticism of the substance and process of teacher education from within and without the profession. There is consistent pressure to prepare teachers who will be more effective in terms of pupil achievement.
- Changes in supply and demand.
- Changes in areas of need for new teachers, and the demand for redirection toward those areas of need.
- Recent recognition of a need for greater attention to multicultural and bilingual education, and to those youngsters handicapped mentally, physically, or emotionally.
- Increasing need to provide more effective training for those teachers who will work with the urban and rural poor.

Criticism of teacher education is frequently based on a desire to improve the public schools. It comes, in general, from two sources. One source of criticism comes from individuals outside the profession who believe that improved teacher training will increase the quality of teachers and thus public education. This professional criticism focuses on the charges that teacher preparation programs do not adequately prepare teachers to begin

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[2] See: Bruce R. Joyce, Sam J. Yarger, Kenneth R. Howey, Karen M. Harbeck and Thomas N. Kluwin. Preservice Teacher Education (Palo Alto, CA., 1977). ERIC No. SP 011 438, March 1978.

teaching, and that schools of education do not offer effective help to teachers in service.

The criticism has both radical and conservative implications. On the progressive side, it can be interpreted to mean that the programs of teacher preparation should fuel changes in schooling. On the conservative side, it can mean that the schools of education should ally themselves even more with field-based training programs to ensure that the teacher will fit comfortably into the existing educational system and will have the tools necessary to fulfill the traditional teaching roles within our society. Some would have the young teachers prepare to work in "alternative schools" and implement the technical innovations of the time. Others would reaffirm the existing role and fit the new teacher into the ongoing organization in as smooth a way as possible.

Changes in the supply of and demand for teachers have received much attention in recent years. Some suggest that teacher education programs should restrict enrollment radically. Others suggest that the natural forces of the marketplace should be allowed to operate in order to give students more free choice.

Simultaneous with the change in the overall picture of supply and demand has come pressure to redirect student enrollment to areas of present need, especially in special education and vocational career education. This pressure operates to urge schools of education to expand programs in those areas of present need.

Not unrelated is the present movement toward multicultural and bilingual education as an extension of the role of the school in promoting cultural pluralism. A considerable curriculum development movement has occurred in these two areas although it has not yet reached the magnitude or intensity

of the academic reform movement of a few years ago. Nonetheless, there is considerable pressure today to provide all students with a knowledge of the mixture of cultures which make up the United States, to prepare teachers to help persons learn in native languages other than English, and to provide all students with insight into the linguistic variety of our society. Considerable pressure is on teacher education to adapt to this movement and to provide preservice and inservice teachers with the knowledge of many cultures and the capability to relate to persons in more than one language. Thus, implications of Public Law 94-142 were far-reaching in their attempt to provide the 'least restrictive environment' for students with various dimensions of exceptionality. Unfortunately, however, the condition of education for the urban and rural poor continues to be bad. The pressure is on schools and teacher education programs to improve the capability of their training agents so that they will relate more effectively to the poor in both metropolitan and rural settings. The teacher education establishment must adapt itself more effectively to social needs and respond to cultural diversity.

It is time to assess clearly the state of preservice training and to respond honestly to its general problems. In the following pages we present data and opinion about its condition and problems, and speculate about possibilities for reform.

SECTION TWO

THE PEOPLE IN TEACHER EDUCATION: SUPPLY, DEMAND, AND SELECTION

The Need for Teachers

We begin with a fundamental concern of those who prepare beginning teachers--attaining a reasonable match between the number and type of teachers being graduated and certified and the number and type of new teachers needed in our schools. One current perception is that few new teachers are needed; that in general there is a considerable over supply. Others would assess the current condition as one of general under utilization. Whichever, there is no doubt that currently many beginning teachers are unable to find a teaching position. Information gathered by the research division of the NEA indicated the following with respect to the teacher supply and demand in the fall of 1976.[3]

> The number of beginning teacher graduates for 1976 was estimated at 233,470. This is smaller by 6.2 percent than the number reported for 1975.
>
> The estimated number of those graduates who actively sought a teaching position was 185,850. The NEA predicted only 94,050 position openings or a surplus of 91,700 beginning teachers. They estimated 87,100 new teachers at the elementary level would compete for 45,700 positions and 98,650 teachers with secondary school specialties would be confronted with a job market with only 48,350 openings.

This same report makes an interesting projection for the number of new teachers which would be needed to provide the programs and services required if public education were raised to what the NEA researchers consider to be

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[3] NEA Research Memo 1977-3. Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1976. National Education Association, Washington, D.C., June, 1977. (p.1)

minimal levels of quality. They estimated the number of teachers needed to attain a minimum level of quality in public education would increase dramatically as it included staff needed for such desirable changes in school programs and services as: the replacement of teachers having substandard qualifications; a reduction in the number of overcrowded classrooms; better teacher-pupil ratios in working with special education students; more teachers for kindergarten and nursery schools; a reduction in "misassigned" teachers; and additional teachers required for an expanded curriculum to keep current with evolving needs.

Their calculations are presented in the following table.

Table 1

Demand for New Teachers Based on the Quality Criterion, 1976[4]

Source of demand	Estimated demand for new teachers		
	Elementary	Secondary	Total
1	2	3	4
Enrollment change and trends toward improved staffing	-2,250	1,450	-800
Teacher turnover	73,650	64,200	137,850
Temporary replacement of teachers having substandard qualifications.	9,350	5,700	15,050
Reduction in number of overcrowded classes	207,500	156,000	363,500
Enlarged numbers enrolled in special education.....	80,000	80,000	160,000
Enlarged numbers enrolled in kindergarten and nursery school...	13,000	--	13,000
Reeducation in number of misassigned teachers.....	25,150	39,700	64,850
Enlargement of school offerings.....	1,000	50,000	51,000
TOTAL.....	407,400	397,050	804,450

If demand for teachers is thought of in terms of the NEA's projection

[4]Ibid., p. 5.

of what it would take to reach minimal criteria, the 185,000-plus beginning teachers seeking positions in 1976 would not be 91,000 too many but rather 620,000 too few! In other words, if supply is thought of in terms of sheer job availability, there is an oversupply of new teachers. If quality of education is considered, the picture changes radically. The reality remains, however, that although many educational professionals may agree with the NEA findings, efforts to expand and reorganize the teaching force have not been possessed with either a great deal of conceptual clarity or political clout.

There are additional data which support the position that schools may be understaffed: teachers themselves feel overextended. According to another recent NEA survey, teachers reported that they were more dissatisfied with their jobs, more than at any time since such annual inventories were initiated in 1961. Only six in ten teachers plan to teach until retirement and one out of every ten are teaching only until they can find a better job. More than a third (37.5%) were quoted as stating that they were not sure they would select teaching as a career if given this choice again.[5] Some of this dissatisfaction was captured in the comments of a teacher interviewed at the 1977 NEA convention: "Society demands that we do everything. It wants schools to meet all the needs that the family, church, and the community used to provide. Yet it doesn't want to give us the freedom to use our expertise to get things done."

Speculating on the future, it is difficult to predict what initiatives, if any, school districts will be able to take in order to create more optimal workloads for teachers, and it is equally unclear how many teachers will leave the profession early if this isn't done.

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[5] National Education Association, Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1975-1976. Washington, D.C., 1977, p. 39.

The supply-and-demand picture is clouded by uncertainty about future school enrollments. For example, in a January 1977 report the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) projected a considerable decline in K-12 school enrollments from 1975-1985,[6] from 50,137,000 K-12 students in 1975 to 46,058,000 in 1985. This decrease is primarily based on a declining birthrate. However, a National Institute of Education (NIE) sponsored study, The Demographic Background to Changing Enrollments and School Needs, reports that some parts of the country can expect an increase in students relatively soon. These projections call for the number of school age children to go back up by about 4.4 million in the 1980s.[7] While the rate at which American women are bearing children reached an all-time low in 1976, it rose 6 percent in the first quarter of 1977 and sustained that growth trend throughout the year. A Census Bureau spokesman conjectured, "Children of the World War II baby boom, now entering their 30s, had delayed becoming parents for various reasons and are suddenly making 'now or never' decisions."[8] How temporary or enduring this turnabout in birth rate is remains to be seen. Thus, even a projection for the future need for teachers based strictly on present teacher-students ratios without consideration of other factors is uncertain.

Another factor which generates uncertainty is the unavailability of precise data on how many students in teacher education programs seriously pursue a teacher career upon graduation. At this point in time it appears

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[6] National Center for Education Statistics. Statistics of Trends in Education 1965-66 to 1985-86. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976 (0-201-014).

[7] National Institute of Education. Information NIE, Washington, D.C., Summer, 1977.

[8] "Baby Talk," a report in Newsweek, August 8, 1977.

that many teacher education graduates use their training to pursue other vocations, especially in the social services and in the helping professions; others choose to defer their career and engage in further graduate study or start a family. The NEA study noted earlier suggests that about 83 percent of teacher candidates who graduate actually pursue a teaching position (185,000 of 223,000). The perceptions of departmental heads in our preservice study are similar.[9] They estimate that only 84 of 100 persons admitted to a teacher preparation program eventually graduate and about 70 of these 84 graduates actively seek employment. Thus while this is an 83 percent estimate of those who graduate, it is only 70 percent of those who begin programs. These administrators also estimate that only 59 percent will actually locate a teaching position, which is slightly higher than the NEA figures. The program and unit heads also estimate that, from their experience, only slightly more than half (54%) of the teachers who locate positions will remain in the teaching profession more than three years. If these projections are accurate, fewer than six in ten students who begin a program of teacher education will obtain a teaching position and only about three in ten will be teaching after three years. This is a very high attrition rate, and the underlying causes deserve much attention. Current enrollments in teacher education programs may not be nearly as overpopulated as many perceive. We have to ask:

> Why is it that a substantial proportion of teachers who complete initial training do not actively pursue a position?
>
> How many beginning teachers "fail" at teaching?
>
> To what extent do the conditions of teaching (including inservice help) cause these people to fail?
>
> Is this pattern part of normal exploratory behavior by persons in the society?

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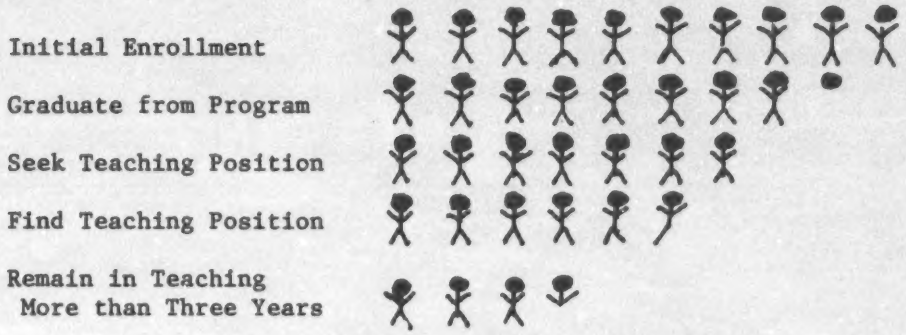
[9] Joyce, et al., op.cit. Chapter Six.

In summary, when one traces the number of students who actually enroll in programs to those who are teaching after three years, the following profile emerges.

Table 2
TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENT ATTRITION



We are not by any means suggesting that admissions policies be regulated solely by market demands. Nonetheless, more accurate projections of future teaching opportunities are needed both for those considering a career in teaching and those responsible for the development of new and the maintenance of already existing programs. Also, the extent to which tax monies should support training for personnel which cannot presently be employed is a very real political issue.

Admissions Policies and Procedures

How is enrollment determined? It appears that the size of enrollment in the various programs preparing teachers to this point has been commonly dictated by the number of students who have decided to enroll. Over 80 percent of the institutions in the survey indicated they used an open enrollment policy, that is, their enrollment is determined by the number of interested

students who meet requirements. Thus, only a limited number of institutions and programs have established limits on enrollments.

At this time there appears to be little concern over what a reasonable maximum enrollment might be, as numbers have naturally decreased. More often, it appears that schools and colleges of education are having difficulty in generating enough undergraduates to justify existing faculty resources. Given the considerable problems associated with accurate manpower projections, it is likely that those few programs which do maintain limits do so in terms of what they consider a reasonable faculty workload generally and faculty-student ratios specifically. This assumption is lent credence by the fact that only about one in ten programs in the study indicated that they used population studies or manpower projections. Surveys of employment rates of recent graduates were taken into account by only about a fourth of the institutions reporting.

If most institutions accept as many students as apply, as long as they meet admissions requirements, the matter of these requirements is critical. What are these requirements? By far the most common credentials used in admissions are previous college accumulated grade point averages (GPA) and letters of recommendation. About seven in ten institutions report that they have a "formal" selection process, which appears, in most situations, to entail an examination of previous grades, SAT-type test scores, and written recommendations. Personal interviews with students are conducted in only one out of three institutions. Speech proficiency is tested in slightly more than one in four institutions. Standardized examinations and personality assessments are rarely utilized.

Admission in most cases is a rather mechanical procedure. When selection requires further input, however, program faculty, department heads and deans

are those most commonly involved. The involvement of other education faculty or students themselves occurs in only one program in five and the participation of local school or community persons in this process is exceedingly rare (see Table 3). A more complex approach would require the involvement of a broader spectrum of groups.

Table 3

PERCENT OF PROGRAMS IN WHICH VARIOUS ROLE GROUPS ARE INVOLVED IN FORMULATING OR IMPLEMENTING ADMISSIONS

Role Group	Percent of Teacher Education Programs
Program Area Faculty	49.1%
Chief Administrative Officer	47.4%
Program Administrator	44.8%
Director of Student Teaching	29.6%
Arts and Science Faculty	20%
Other Education Faculty	19.3%
Student Representatives	19.2%
Local School Personnel	9.5%
Community Representative	4.7%

When year of entrance into teacher education programs was examined an interesting finding resulted. Not as many training programs wait until the junior year to admit students as popular opinion would indicate. Over one-fifth of the programs have freshman admissions and another 20 percent admit students in the sophomore year. Additionally, almost one in ten programs maintains a fifth year option for persons who have completed the basic requirements of the baccalaureate degree and then decide to enter a teacher preparation program.

Let us consider some of the characteristics of the students who complete this admission process and their views about their preparation.

Students and Their Views

Questionnaire responses from over 2,000 teacher education students in more than 150 institutions provide an abundance of information from which the interpretive analyst can paint an interesting portrait.[10] Picture in your mind the "typical" teacher education student, and compare that picture with the following description based upon this data. Two-thirds of the students are female; only one third are married. About to enter the job market, we note that they are in their early 20s (though one-fourth of their colleagues are 26 years of age or older). The great majority of the students are white, while only about 7 percent of the class is Black or other visible minorities. Only three out of a hundred of the students could use either Spanish or French as a medium for instruction and less than one percent specified any other language, so most students speak only English. Along with 80 percent of their colleagues, he/she attends college in their home state (a startling two-third of the student respondents attend college within 100 miles of their home). They most likely come from a small city or from a rural area, and he/she selected the college they are attending because of the programs that were available, the amount it would cost, the convenience to home, and, interestingly, because he/she believes they will obtain a job upon graduation. How do they view their program of teacher preparation?

Student Perceptions of Program

The student-respondents were nearing the completion of their program and had completed a variety of clinical experiences. They were asked to esti-

[10] See Joyce, et al. Preservice Teacher Education, Chapter 4.

mate their competence in various dimensions of teaching. Interestingly, although many of the students reported limited amounts of training in classroom organization and management, the majority felt quite competent to operate in that area. Presumably this confidence is more closely related to their clinical experiences than to formal study in their professional sequence. As one might expect, the students feel relatively competent of their ability to teach in specialty areas and in their ability to relate satisfactorily with other teachers. They feel less competent when it comes to utilizizing resources and special personnel, and quite incompetent when it comes to the diagnosis and remediation of specific learning disabilities. In several respects this is alarming, especially since such competence is obviously necessary in order to better integrate handicapped children into regular classroom environments. Generally, however, students express a considerable self-confidence as they are about to receive the credentials to enter the classroom as a beginning teacher.

Evidence of student support for their programs was found when respondents were asked to report their levels of satisfaction with both institutions and programs. Two-thirds of the students stated that they were very satisfied with their major field courses. In fact, they reported more satisfaction with their professional training than with the other courses they take. It is surprising, given the negative views of experienced teachers toward their programs of preparation, that the novitiate teacher is so satisfied with the experience. One can only speculate as to the reasons why. It is not unlikely that the preservice teachers' perceptions of the role of teacher are somewhat idealized, and that their perceptions are reinforced by many of the sheltered experiences of a teacher education program. They may be satisfied because

they are preparing for a classroom world that does not exist.

Remembering that teacher educators devote a lot of their time to counselling and advising students, it is also altogether possible that a favorable reaction to "program" is really a favorable reaction to people. In other words, preservice students like their professors, and view them as interested and helpful. Thus, in this instance, one might question the criteria used by students to evaluate their programs. Additionally, it is human nature to rate highly a training program that has consumed a part of one's life and has provided the initial credential to practice one's life work. To do otherwise would be to acknowledge wasted time and effort, as well as a limited ability to practice the profession that one is about to enter.

Finally, preservice students may not have the perspectives necessary to develop criteria for judging a teacher education program. It will not be until they have internalized their personal role of teacher that they can ferret from that role the standards by which to judge a preparatory program.

What about the student teaching experience? It is not surprising that about two-thirds report that student teaching occurs in a self-contained classroom. Nearly one-third cite experience in an "open" classroom, while less than 10 percent are exposed to differentiated staffing and alternative schools during their student teaching experience.

The students were asked their opinion about the student teaching experiences. Did they enjoy and perceive profit from their experience? Apparently they did. The data presented in Table 4 suggests that over 60 percent valued the student teaching experience enough to reinforce the likelihood that they would pursue teaching as a career, with slightly over 10 percent reporting a confusing effect on their career plans. Less than 6 percent viewed

student teaching as an experience that detracted from their desire to obtain a teaching position.

Table 4

PRESERVICE EDUCATION STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF EFFECT OF STUDENT TEACHING ON CAREER PLANS

Factor	Percent
More Likely to Teach	60.3
Less Likely to Teach	5.6
No Effect	11.2
Uncertain of Effect	10.3
No Response	12.6
Total	100.0

When students were asked about the ethnicity and racial background of the children they would prefer to teach, over 50 percent responded with an announced preference for white children. Another one-third expressed a desire for a multi-racial classroom, with the remaining preferences distributed among the other visible minorities. At this time, when schools are subject to court-ordered desegregation and there is a strong movement toward multi-cultural education, it appears that teacher training programs are not keeping up in terms of preparing teachers who would opt for (and presumably feel comfortable in) the type of pluralistic society that is hopefully being created.

Additionally, the majority of preservice graduates would prefer to teach in suburban or small-town settings (over 55%). Only about 12 percent desire an urban setting. Again, this is somewhat alarming when one considers that the great bulk of America's children attend school in urban areas.

In summary, the graduating preservice student can best be described as predominantly female and slightly older than other college students. He/she is usually mono-lingual and mono-cultural, and goes to college very close to home, which frequently is in a small city, town, or rural setting. Generally, they like their programs, but perceive some gaps in their preparation, particularly in the area of learning how to diagnose and remediate specific learning disabilities. They also cite a lack of program content in multicultural education.

Student teaching reinforces their desires to teach children, and although they have aspirations concerning a more ideal environment in which to teach, their perceptions of the environment in which they are most likely to find employment is quite realistic. Graduating students understand the job market and by and large appear to be enthusiastic about teaching.

Faculty and Views

What are the faculty like in teacher training programs in the colleges and universities in our country? Are they traditional scholars? Do they view themselves as clinicians? How much do they actually teach? In the next few pages, we explore the nature of the faculty in preservice teacher education programs.[11]

Again, we ask the reader to take a minute to conjure up a picture of the "typical" teacher education professor. Your image can then be compared with the picture constructed from the data.

The typical teacher education professor is a man in his early 40s, though over one-third of his colleagues are women. About half of the faculty

[11] See Joyce, Yarger, Howey, Harbeck and Kluwin. Preservice Teacher Education, op. cit.

are full professors, with a third being associate professors, and the rest either assistant professors or lecturers. The great majority of full time faculty in teacher education are tenured.

In many ways, the teacher education faculty member resembles the student described earlier, and why not--many professors have been recruited from that population. About 87 percent of them are white, 8 percent are Black, and the rest represent other visible minorities. They tend to come either from a smaller city or rural area, with about 30 percent reporting rural backgrounds.

Teacher education professors are not among the most affluent in our society. In fact, the mean salary is about $17,000 for the academic year, though admittedly many professors supplement their income with various types of summer employment. Contrary to what many believe, consultation occurs neither regularly nor often (less than a week per year on the average). Also somewhat less than 10 percent of the faculty who responded to the questionnaire report that their positions are contingent upon external funding sources.

A common perception among educators is that the typical faculty member in a college or school of education has had little public school experience. That simply is not true. A startling 90 percent report experience in elementary and secondary education. The typical teacher education professor has taught for about 8 years and has had about 2 years of administrative experience as well.

Perceptions of Their Professional Role

What do they think about their work? Faculty report that for the most part they teach professional education courses. Over two-thirds of the faculty are involved in providing clinical supervision for teacher education

students, and about 30 percent serve on some form of thesis or dissertation committees.

Interestingly, 4 of 5 faculty respondents report some administrative responsibility, though it is suspected that the term administration is interpreted quite broadly. Less than one-fourth report they give much time to inservice training. It seems that teaching, advising and counselling, coupled with some administrative responsibilities are the most common roles fulfilled by teacher education faculty.

How do the faculty view the importance of their various responsibilities? (See Table 5). Clearly, at least when it comes to the criteria for making decisions about promotion and tenure, the teaching of undergraduates is viewed as most important. When this is added to the data reporting the importance of graduate teaching, it becomes apparent that teacher educators view teaching as overwhelmingly important, at least as it relates to promotion and tenure. Research and scholarship are also viewed as important, but are clearly a distant second. Obviously, in those relatively few institutions with an emphasis on research and knowledge production these criteria are reversed in order of importance.

Table 5

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF FACTORS CONSIDERED IMPORTANT IN PROMOTION AND TENURE DECISIONS ABOUT FACULTY
(in percent)

FACTOR	Most Important		2nd Most Important		3rd Most Important	
	Promo.	Tenure	Promo.	Tenure	Promo.	Tenure
Undergraduate Teaching	46.9	50.5	15.7	14.4	13.2	10.1
Graduate Teaching	14.5	15.1	26.3	24.0	10.4	11.8
Research & Scholarship	30.4	23.6	20.1	20.1	17.0	19.6
Institutional Service	8.8	6.7	28.5	27.6	29.4	30.5
External Service	1.8	1.8	6.1	3.7	19.2	20.3

How do college teacher educators teach? Lecturing is the single most common method for instruction. It is used most frequently in special education and general education courses and, as one might expect, least often in clinical supervision. Clinical supervision is typically in the form of a seminar. Independent study and group projects are also utilized, as are other instructional techniques, but not as commonly as the lecture-discussion format.

One might think, given the variety of innovative modern-day instructional tools, that teacher educators would employ them extensively in their field supervision to model them for their students. Not so. The most commonly reported strategies for the supervision of student teachers is the time-honored structured observation. Devices such as videotape, audiotape, and strategies such as micro-teaching, simulation, and sensitivity training are not used extensively. The supervision of clinical experiences is still a labor-intensive effort, with observation, conferencing, and small seminars the most common procedures.

The faculty were asked whether or not they were involved in some type of research. Nearly 60 percent reported that they were, though the meaning of the term research was not explored. Of those responding, less than 1 percent cited research as their primary interest, and when they cited dual interests, less than 10 percent said research was more important than teaching. Even for those faculty involved in research, teaching again comes through as the more valued activity.

Table 6

RELATIVE INTEREST IN RESEARCH AND TEACHING FOR THOSE REPORTING RESEARCH INVOLVEMENT (57.2% of Total)

INTEREST	Percent of Those Reporting Research Involvement	Percent of Total Sample
Primarily Research	0.9	0.5
Both, but Primarily Research	8.7	5.0
Both, but Primarily Teaching	51.4	29.4
Primarily Teaching	33.4	19.1
No Response	5.6	3.2

With scholarship generally ranking below teaching as a criterion for promotion and tenure, and with research appealing to fewer faculty members than teaching, one would expect that the scholarly productivity of teacher education professors would be moderate. Indeed, this appears to be the case. Over two-thirds of the faculty respondents have never authored, co-authored, or edited a book. Even when it comes to the publication of articles, the productivity of teacher educators is limited. More than half of the faculty have not published an article during the last three years, and less than 10 percent have published three or more. Clearly, the perception of teacher

education faculty driven to publish or perish is mythical. It is valued by few, it is not perceived to be a primary criterion for success, and it occurs quite rarely.

Teacher education faculty do see the need for improvement. Even though they devote time to student counselling, nearly half of the faculty suggest that this service to students needs improvement. Additionally, faculty perceive the preparation of students for multi-ethnic and multi-cultural education as inadequate. They are equally concerned about the preparation provided students which would enable them to teach rural and poor children. Few faculty, however, cite such needs as relating instructional processes to research, the gathering and generation of new knowledge, or the development of methods for assessing student progress as major problem areas.

SECTION THREE
PROGRAM: VARIATIONS ON COMMON THEMES[12]

Many people think that when a young man or woman enters college with the declared intent of becoming a teacher they spend the greater part of four years studying to fulfill that role. Teacher educators know better. One need only look at state certification requirements and/or undergraduate college bulletins to know that the majority of degree requirements met by teacher education students are not related to learning about teaching, learning how to teach, or on demonstrating the ability to teach.

In fact, only about 39 percent of an elementary teacher education student's life is devoted to any form of professional training activities (see Table 7). Approximately 26 percent of an academic career can be labeled "professional studies" and generally consists of classroom instruction offered by a school of education as part of a teacher education program. Although a portion of this training may involve field experiences and some interaction with children, most of it is taken in a typical lecture and/or discussion format. Beyond that, slightly less than 13 percent of the students' career (at least as it relates to credit hours) is devoted to some form of supervised practice teaching.

Secondary students, as one might expect, receive even less. Less than 25 percent of the secondary teacher education student's academic career is devoted to any form of professional training, with slightly over 14 percent in professional studies and 10 percent in some form of supervised practice teaching. Translated into credit hours, elementary students receive, on the average, 47 credit hours in education, with 31 hours devoted to profes-

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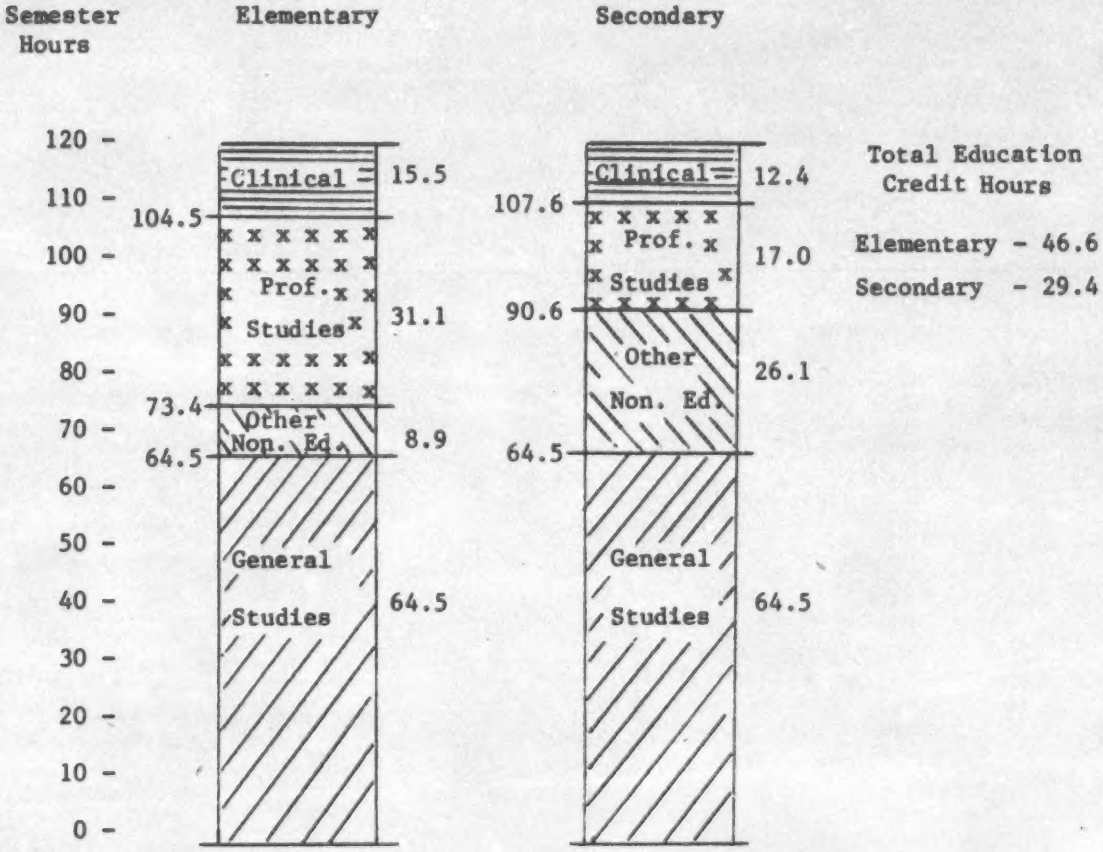
[12] A more detailed analysis is in Joyce, Yarger, Howey, Harbeck and Kluwin. Preservice Teacher Education, op. cit., Chapters Five and Six.

sional studies, and 16 hours devoted to supervised practice teaching. Secondary students receive 29 hours academic credit with 17 hours related to professional studies and 12 hours to student teaching.

Table 7

DISTRIBUTION OF CREDIT HOURS FOR ACADEMIC CAREERS OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS



Although no one denies the need for a liberal education, generally embraced within a general studies component, the acquisition of this background by teacher education students in no way lessens the need for both academic and clinical professional training. Accepting the position that it is highly improbable that teacher training programs can be significantly extended in time, we are left with the sobering fact that we have (in academic terms) about a year and a half to train elementary teachers and a year to train secondary teachers.

Reaching the conclusion that the extension of teacher education programs was not feasible was a painful process. Consider the difficulties. Not only would one be compelled to achieve a significant revision of state certification requirements, but it would also be necessary to orchestrate rather significant changes in accreditation standards for teacher education. The political problems in achieving either of these goals are enormous. And if those problems are not enough, one would have to confront the politics of having programs approved within a college or university setting. This is a particularly difficult problem to solve if those who must support the change also view the change as threatening to their domain. "Turf problems" in academia revolve around the reality that adding hours of credit in one area typically means reducing them in another. One could argue that an extension of basic teacher education programs through a fifth year, perhaps leading to a master's degree, are necessary. Although the authors probably would not disagree on substantive grounds, the history of fifth year programs leading to initial certification have not been encouraging. The rewards of teaching are simply not great enough to demand that kind of time and financial investment on the part of prospective teachers.

Thus, teacher educators must acknowledge the constraint of time for training. Additionally, it should be noted that the year and a half for elementary teachers and year for secondary teachers typically does not break out in neat segments of time. Rather, the hours of credit that represent this amount of academic time are typically spread out over two, three, or even four years. This leads naturally to a question--How do we use the time that we have?

Professional Studies

Table 8 presents data concerning the distribution of academic credit over program areas. As can readily be seen, both elementary and secondary students receive about the same number of credit hours in the introductory and foundation areas. Elementary students receive more curriculum and general methods courses, although neither student group receives very much. The big difference between elementary and secondary training programs is found in specific methods courses, with elementary students receiving almost three times as much training in methods of teaching. Elementary students take methods courses in many content areas, while secondary students generally specialize in one or two at the most. Total training in professional studies is also very important. Elementary teacher education students receive somewhat over 30 hours, excluding clinical experiences, while secondary students receive only 17 semester hours of credit.

Table 8

CONTENT AREA DISTRIBUTION OF CREDIT HOURS AND EXTRAPOLATIONS IN PROFESSIONAL STUDIES COMPONENT FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION STUDENTS

Content Area	Program	$\bar{X}$ Hrs. Per Area	Extrapolations: Hrs. of Inst. @ 15 Hrs. Per Credit	Extrapolations: Weeks of Instruction @ 40 Hrs. Per Week
Introduction and Foundations of Education	Elementary	7.3	109.5	2.73
	Secondary	6.2	93.0	2.33
Curriculum	Elementary	2.2	33.0	0.83
	Secondary	1.0	15.0	0.38
General Methods	Elementary	2.0	30.0	0.75
	Secondary	1.3	19.5	0.49
Specific Methods	Elementary	12.9	193.5	4.80
	Secondary	4.6	69.0	1.73
Supportive Courses, e.g., Phys. Ed., Tests & Measurements, etc.	Elementary	6.7	100.5	2.51
	Secondary	3.9	58.5	1.46
Total	Elementary	31.1	466.5	11.66
	Secondary	17.0	255.0	6.38

Despite all of the above information, we were still puzzled by the nagging question of precisely how much training do students receive? Consequently, some extrapolations were performed in order to cast the data in a different context. If one accepts the standard of 15 hours of instruction per semester hour of credit, a very interesting picture emerges. Elementary students receive slightly over 100 hours of instruction in introductory and foundations courses and slightly under 200 hours in specific methods (i.e., teaching of reading, mathematics, social studies, etc.). One hundred hours of instruction is also received in supportive courses such as speech for teachers, handwriting, physical education, tests and measurements, and others. Secondary students, as can be easily seen in Table 8, receive less direct instruction in all areas.

In terms of concrete amounts of training, imagine for a moment an unreal world where students receive training continually in 40-hour "work weeks." The following picture emerges. Between two and three weeks of training would occur in the foundations and introductory areas and in the supportive course area, at least for elementary students. In curriculum and general methods courses, both elementary and secondary teacher education students would receive nearly five weeks of training in specific methods while secondary students would receive somewhat less than two weeks of training. The most important impression conveyed by this analysis is that on a continuous training, 40-hour week basis, elementary teacher education students could be trained in less than 12 weeks and secondary teacher education students in slightly over six. Admittedly, clinical experiences are not included in this analysis. Even more important, time for study, time for reflection, time for informal exchange with colleagues and professors, and other such serendipitous yet extremely important aspects of teacher education programs are excluded. The

point of this analysis is that although the academic credit in a training program may range from a year to a year-and-a-half, and this may be spread over a two or three year calendar period, the fact remains that teacher education students receive precious little direct formal instruction in their quest to master the complex skills of teaching.

The Clinical Experience

Data were also gathered concerning the amount and nature of clinical experience that preservice students receive in teacher education programs. These data were not broken down by elementary and secondary, but it should be noted that elementary students receive an average of 15.5 hours credit for their student teaching while secondary students receive slightly more than 12 hours credit. Additionally, collective observation over many years by the authors suggests that elementary students receive more and varied clinical experiences in their teacher education programs than do those preparing for professional positions in secondary schools.

The data reflect an amazing diversity of clinical experience for preservice students, all of which will not be reported here. Data were received on this topic from over 550 programs in more than 140 teacher training institutions. It was discovered that preservice students have opportunities for unsupervised contact, structured observation, observation coupled with participation, supervised practice teaching and various kinds of internships. What was most surprising to the authors was that in a variety of programs, some type of clinical experience is available at every academic level from freshman year through fifth year programs. The bulk of these experiences, such as supervised observation during the freshman year, are reported in less than 10 percent of the programs. The three most prevalent kinds of clinical experience are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

CLINICAL EXPERIENCES OF PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS

	Number of Programs	Number of Programs Reporting	Percent of Total	Number of Weeks	Number of Hours per Week	Total Hours of Clinical Experience
Supervised Practice Teaching-Senior Year	551	404	73.3	11.8	29.2	344.6
Observation and Participation-Junior Year	551	227	41.2	12.2	6.7	81.7
Observation and Participation-Sophomore Year	551	105	19.1	11.0	6.0	66.0

On the average, as one might expect, the student teaching experience consumes about 30 hours per week for 12 weeks, resulting in about 350 hours of training. Thus, if we were to add the supervised practice teaching to the professional studies component, throwing in the other types of clinical experience reported most frequently in Table 9, it appears that we could easily training elementary teachers within six months and secondary teachers somewhat quicker if training was compacted into full-time, consecutive "work weeks."

Again acknowledging the shortcomings inherent in an analysis of this type, some comparisons should prove helpful. Ofttimes, for example, training programs for technologists and non-professionals that are offered in community colleges and proprietary schools are structured so that students receive training on a full-time basis. Barbers, beauticians, dieticians, medical technicians, child care workers and others are often trained this way. If sub-professional training programs last more than six months, and they frequently do, (a year is not uncommon) then it is conceivable that graduates from these programs receive more direct training than do either elementary or secondary teachers! This is a startling thought, and while the comparison may be flawed, it again underscores the fact that teacher education students do not receive an abundance of training for their professional positions.

Similar comparisons can also be made with professional training programs. Students preparing for careers in medicine, psychology, and law, for example, are often engaged in training activities that consume their efforts at a much greater level of intensity than do teacher education programs. It is not unusual for a medical student to be programmatically involved (lectures, labs, clinical experiences, etc.) for many hours a day over a period of

several years. Students studying for other professions could describe equally demanding programs. It is very different in teacher education. It is not unusual, for example, for a junior in teacher education to be taking two general studies courses (e.g., abnormal psychology and political science), two professional education courses (e.g., philosophy of education and the teaching of reading), and (in about 40 percent of the cases) to be involved in a 12-week clinical experience for about six or seven hours a week. Thus, during this semester, the student would receive approximately 90 hours of direct professional instruction and 80 hours of clinical experience. During the next semester, on the average, it is likely that the student would not be involved in a clinical experience.

Supervision of Clinical Experiences

The typical full time college supervisor has responsibility for about 16 student teachers each quarter or semester. This supervisor observes and counsels with the average student teacher six or seven times during that period. As most readers well know, many (perhaps most) supervisors have other responsibilities as well. Thus, it is more likely that a professional fulfilling this role will supervise six or eight student teachers, advise others, teach one or more courses, and serve on various committees. The role of the college supervisor is traditionally very demanding.

The perceptions of college supervisors and cooperating teachers are the chief forms of clinical evaluation. The principal's judgment is called upon in a few programs and some systematic attempt to assess the trainee's impact on pupil performance is made in about one in seven programs, though it is unclear what criteria are used. In about half of the programs, student opinion is also included in the evaluation process.

Given the rather major responsibility of the cooperating teacher, one would assume they would be selected with considerable care, provided training in supervision, and substantially reimbursed for their efforts. This is simply not the case. Fewer than one-fifth of the department chairs cited level of experience as a teacher, advanced training or previous supervisory experience as the most important factors in the selection of cooperating teachers. Instead, the general reputation of the teacher and a willingness to work with student teachers appear to be the chief criteria for selection.

It may well be that the role lacks appeal for many teachers. A sense of professional responsibility on the one hand and the reciprocal assistance provided by the novitiate in the classroom on the other appear to be the basic incentives for assuming such a role. Certainly, the modest honorarium provided in half the institutions to cooperating teachers has limited drawing power, to put it mildly. The average program offers $30, but many provide none. Various inkind considerations and faculty assistance to teachers of one type or another are provided to some degree. No one practice is common, however, and there are considerable differences in terms of what is provided to teachers. About one in seven institutions afford such considerations as tuition remission, admission to college functions, or library privileges. One in five departments provide some help to the teacher in the way of media or materials. Only about a quarter provide formal inservice training on how to be effective as a cooperating teacher.

Less common is the practice of teacher educators involving themselves in planning and program development with teachers and schools, as only 17 percent of the programs report they assist with such efforts. It should be noted that there are notable differences between departments. Perhaps the most

striking is that elementary programs appear to offer far more reciprocity in terms of services than any other department. For example, over 70 percent (71.6%) of the elementary program units provide consultation to teachers, while this is common with only 44.2 percent of the secondary programs. Better than four in ten elementary programs provide formal in-service (42.3%), while less than two in ten secondary programs (18.2%) provide it.

Thus, with higher education and local education agencies financially strapped at this time in history, it appears that rather traditional practices in student teaching still dominate. There is minimal acknowledgement of the cruciality of the cooperating teachers' role in terms of their selection, training, and renumeration. While the student teaching experience does appear to be the hub for some college-school collaboration, it would appear to contribute little to school practices in the vast majority of cases. Understandably then, the placement of students and conditions of student teaching have become a matter of teacher negotiations in many districts. Hopefully, this type of professional-political dialogue will be one in which the specific needs of the student teacher and the general needs of the profession are considered as well as those of the cooperating teacher.

Thus, we have our programs--constrained in time, convergent in content, and consuming the efforts of a great number of dedicated professors and teachers. Although in some cases unique programs replete with creative and new ideas are evident, the fact remains that most teacher education programs are remarkably similar, probably reflecting state certification requirements and accreditation standards. Although these data and this interpretation may appear overly pessimistic, that was not the intent. Rather, the intent

was to convey realistic analyses of teacher education, thus providing the baseline data necessary for speculating about the future of our profession.

In order to speculate effectively, however, still more information is needed. In the next section of this monograph, the capacity of teacher education for innovation and change will be explored.

SECTION FOUR
CAPACITY FOR CHANGE AND INNOVATION

Despite the fact that retrenchment in personnel and resources are common in beginning teacher education programs, there generally has been an effort to modify and even add courses to keep programs as current as possible. For example, 50 percent of the reporting programs indicated that they have modified courses, and another 45 percent report they have added courses in the last three years. This contrasts with only 25 percent who indicate they have dropped courses. The same situation is true in terms of the clinical component. Almost 75 percent of the programs have added to or modified clinical requirements. Less than 3 percent of the programs have cut back such experiences up to the present. Alterations in the general program sequence are less common but still reported by almost a third (32.7%) of the programs. Thus, at one level, teacher education appears to maintain a capability for, and interest in change and improvement of programs.

It must be underscored, however, that despite what appears to be a rather common practice of course revision or additions, graduation requirements were reported as changed in only 13 percent of the institutions reporting such data. Thus, comprehensive program development is <u>not</u> common.

Like major program development, empirical studies of training practices are also rare. Only 22 percent of the programs report they are in any way affiliated with a formally organized research and development effort. Empirical effort is most notably absent in those departments with large enrollments. Only about 1 in 10 elementary and secondary programs have any

type of relationship with a research and development operation, and it is an extremely rare occurrence when this research focuses specifically on training questions. By contrast, school services units report a formal R and D relationship 42 percent of the time.[13] Even though there is an existing network of research and development centers and regional laboratories, only 7 percent of the training programs report some type of working relationship. One must question, given the limited R and D capability, the possibility of major and comprehensive program development in schools and colleges of education. These data, when coupled with data concerning faculty roles and productivity reported earlier, suggest that the difficulties to be encountered in any attempt at major program change would be enormous.

A Case in Point

Perhaps the most vivid illustration of the inability of programs to engineer more systematic and comprehensive changes in their practices, is what appears to be a rapid decline of competency-based teacher education. Certainly there has been widespread attention given to this approach. The root of the competency-based teacher education (CBTE) approach is the behavioral explication of desired teacher knowledge, skills and attitudes. CBTE has had as a fundamental purpose the conceptualization of teaching role in more behavioral terms than was the case previously and a more precise assessment of the extent to which aspects of this role have been achieved, in some cases in terms of specific (student) teacher impact on pupils. Proponents of this approach commonly proposed operational models, where multiple options and flexible time frames would be provided in order for students to achieve these "competencies." The emphasis on performance

[13] See: Preservice Teacher Education, op.cit., p.33.

necessitated a continuing and coordinated variety of laboratory and clinical experiences.

Needless to say, there are far reaching program ramifications in such a broad concept, including: faculty instructional role, curriculum design, management of materials, altered roles for faculty and student in schools and in their relationships with school personnel. Despite the very considerable attention given to this concept in the early 1970s--attention which culminated in legal mandates for various forms of CBTE--it is still not surprising that its implementation has been limited.

Certainly, many have resisted this approach to teacher education from the beginning on philosophical grounds. They have been put off by the ideological fervor of the movement and the degree to which a teaching role that embraces many personalistic and idiosyncratic qualities was portrayed in technical terms. However, despite a good degree of rather mindless merchandising and overselling which in turn generated unduly severe criticism, most would agree that at least some dimensions of initial training lend themselves to a fairly explicit description of skills and knowledges and relatively precise measurement of achievement by teacher candidates. Elements of competency-based teacher education were endorsed by many, yet it was not widely implemented. It appears that most of those who endeavored to implement CBTE principles were confronted more with feasibility problems than with political and ideological opposition. Examine the following.

Almost 60 percent of the programs report they have written statements of objectives which have been formally adopted by the faculty. Another 9 percent indicate they have written objectives but have not yet adopted these statements, and another 18 percent state that in 1974-75 they were engaged in developing competency statements. Altogether, five in six of

the institutions preparing teachers have expended some energies in this direction. About half of the programs report that these objectives call for the application of trainee knowledge and skills. Almost 20 percent of the programs have adopted statements which indicate that the performance of trainees is to be judged in light of desired pupil outcomes for the children they are teaching.

But what of further implementation beyond the writing or selection of competency statements? Pretesting is a critical ingredient in the CBTE approach. Only 28 percent of the programs indicate any kind of formal pre-assessment of entering students. Pre-assessment in courses is even more rare. Criterion-references procedures, again an essential component of CBTE, are utilized in only 3.4 percent of the programs. Courses in which student evaluation is based on classroom performance are equally rare--only 4.5 percent of the programs report they engage in this practice.

Thus, while the competency rhetoric is common, it appears the essence of the approach in practice is not. Further, most faculty appear at this time to have little enthusiasm for its further development. Sixty percent of the faculty indicate it exists in some form in their institution and 70 percent report some first-hand involvement with it. Nonetheless, when asked to predict future development, over two-thirds said it would not be used at all in their programs in three years, and one-sixth believed it would be used only in specialized applications. Only 3 percent view it as a potentially dominant approach in the future.

Whatever the future holds, the perception here is that the limited progress attained to this point in efforts at achieving more competency-oriented programs is a reflection of what happens to most comprehensive

plans for program reform in preservice teacher education. Dedicated individual professors, like dedicated individual teachers, continue to refine and improve courses. However, in most instances, sufficient resources appear to be lacking for more coordinated approaches to program improvement. It appears as well that there is little in the way of cross-cutting and energizing organizing centers to coalesce faculty in ways necessary to engage in such efforts. The hope by many in CBTE was to develop a fuller conceptual base, to build training programs around more explicitly-defined teaching roles and responsibilities based in turn upon specific forms of schooling. Little of this was accomplished. Much more common were the adoption of rather lengthy and at times random lists of objectives to be acquired by a general, all-purpose, any-situation teacher--especially at the elementary level.

The primary exception in terms of attempting to conceptualize the teacher role has been the development of training programs to prepare teachers, more specifically for the "open" and "informal" schools which evolved in this country over the last decade. Groups of faculty did coalesce at many institutions to effect more coherent and program-wide curricular and instructional changes in preservice training--changes related to an alternative concept of schooling. However, an appropriate meld with CBTE technology has rarely been achieved in conjunction with the "open education" movement. Precision in role definition and assessment of teaching effectiveness has been, if anything, more difficult in the various perceptions of open teaching than in more historical teacher models. Common to such programs as well as an unnecessary dichotomization of behavioral and "humanistic" principles.

Summary

There is little evidence of major conceptual and operational change in initial teacher education or much of an empirical base on which program development can build. Based on the evidence at hand our capacity for change seems limited, nevertheless the following general directions appear most promising:

- Greater focus on and consideration for the human efforts of individual professionals.
- Development of strategies to allow higher education personnel to establish better collegial working relationships.
- Development of mechanisms that promote cooperation between various units within institutions of higher education.
- Development of more, more focused, and more accessible R and D units.
- Continuous efforts to convince politicians of the need for more financial and material resources.

The final section of this report explores what might be done to address these issues.

SECTION FIVE

A FOUNDATION FOR IMPROVEMENT

The purpose of this essay has been to examine some of the structure, practices, and personnel in preservice teacher education in order to lay a foundation for a broad effort of reform. The future of preservice education will depend on whether the present crisis is turned to its benefit by initiating a time of rethinking and redevelopment.

The present movement to improve inservice education can also contribute to an effort to redefine potential relationships between pre- and inservice work--a goal which has never been adequately accomplished--and to develop a more coherent conception of initial and career-long training.

--A strong case can be made that many classroom teachers are over-extended and thus, measures of educational quality should be included in the assessment of supply and demand.

--There is a documented need for more teachers in areas where one finds the economically disadvantaged, the multicultural setting, and students disenchanted with conventional schooling.

--In the immediate future there will be a considerable need for many types of teachers to teach learners beyond elementary and secondary schools--the preschool child and the adult as a continuing learner.

--Thus, teacher preparation is not without potentially large and diverse needs to fill. What actually transpires will depend very much on how adequately and aggressively these needs are documented, and bold, imaginative solutions generated.

The serious problems which have to be faced provide a basis for thinking about the reform of teacher preparation. Preservice programs clearly reflect the efforts to upgrade teacher training by establishing criteria for course

credits and amounts of clinical experience. There is variety in programs, but chiefly in the distribution of separate courses and clinical work. Specialties stay within narrow limits in course requirements (in nearly all institutions, special education contains the most and secondary education the least course requirements) and relatively standard courses appear across the nation. Programs are tied rather tightly to the traditional roles of classroom teaching. Additionally, there is relatively little research and development capability except in a few institutions and little of this is directed toward the improvement of teacher training. Very few training studies are reported annually.

Although colleges and universities have extensive relationships with schools in order to implement clinical programs, the relationships are relatively shallow. Many faculty members who are connected with schools are part-timers or peripheral to the institution. Teachers and school officials are rarely involved in preservice program construction, development of admission procedures, or research and development activities. Little training or support is provided for cooperating teachers.

In addition, the colleges and schools rarely have formal coalitions devoted to school improvement. Thus, the energy of the college faculty is not directed in a major way toward the development of school plans and research tailored to the needs of school districts. Private consulting arrangements are more common than institution-to-institution arrangements (and even these are rare).

The initial teaching license qualifies one for an impossibly broad range of duties in a situation in which relatively little clinically-oriented inservice help is available. Credential and degree-oriented inservice is amply provided for but is by no means adequate to provide for the continuing

clinical needs of teachers. Inservice teachers report that most of the help they get on the job comes from other teachers, while the major investment in inservice structure provides for training by others. Reports of satisfaction with initial preservice training soon become bitter and angry criticisms of preservice and inservice programs alike.

THESE PROBLEMS ARE SOLVABLE

If the vast resources of schools of education, school districts, and teachers can be brought together more coherently, all of these problems can be approached effectively. However, effective solutions will require substantial restructuring of the major components of the entire preservice-inservice enterprise and the formulation of new relationships between selection and admissions questions, preservice programs, school improvement efforts, and staff development programs. No single agency can deal with all of these. Collaboration among states, school districts, colleges, teachers organizations and other professional organizations is necessary in order to develop more comprehensive approaches to effect needed change.

Structural Solutions

Structural changes of the following kinds are needed:

1. In Certification. The broad and initial certificate qualifying personnel for the multiple roles of teaching could be replaced with a license which simply certifies an introduction to the profession of teaching. This would free colleges from attempting to prepare teacher candidates for all aspects of teaching and permit them to concentrate in depth on what colleges do best--prepare students to understand education and schooling. The license would qualify persons to obtain positions as interns and experience clinical training.

2. Inservice Education. The major clinical training could be conducted in training centers operated jointly by states, school districts, colleges, and teachers. It could be tailored to the teaching roles in specific school districts (e.g., teaching teams in multicultural settings) and qualify persons to work in that kind of setting. Upon moving to a new setting, or experiencing a change in curriculum or organization, a teacher would enter a period of fresh training for the new role to be assumed. Clinical training, thus, would be career-long and job-specific.

3. Research and Development in Training and School Improvements. Coalitions between universities, school districts, and communities could create research and development units capable of generating and implementing school improvement and training programs which could be tailored together and utilize both school and college personnel in appropriate and complementary roles.

4. Preservice Program Development. These units could also plan and implement preservice programs, articulating them to prepare teacher candidates with the requisite knowledge for on-site clinical preparation.

5. Admission. Open admission could remain for the preservice component, with rigorous criteria being applied for admission to internship and clinical training. In addition, it might be found that some persons would qualify for certain roles but not for others.

Our thesis is that it will be more coherent and economical to face the problems of school improvement, inservice education, certification, admission, research and development, and preservice education as an integrated whole. On the surface, a comprehensive approach may appear to be more radical, but we believe it will actually prove to be more sound and utilize present

resources more fully. For example, school improvement efforts are presently hampered by poor staff development programs which enable teachers to learn new roles. Certification requirements presently hamper preservice improvement by directing it toward an impossibly broad professional role. Research and development require school-college cooperation. Approached together, the problems in each area are solvable. Approached piecemeal, they absorb energy and dissipate solutions.

Short Run Strategies

It will take time to generate and implement general approaches containing the kind of elements we are advocating. Meanwhile, much can be done to improve specific problem areas.

1. Admissions. Completely voluntary admission is not defensible, nor is it likely that previous success in college work is adequate as a criterion. Selective admission is now possible and may be necessary, not to restrict enrollment but to further the search for quality. In fact, recruitment of talented persons may be in order at present. It is entirely possible that the most able may be the first to choose other fields of preparation, given the publicity about an oversupply of teachers. There is no reason why a broader spectrum of school personnel, including teachers, arts and science faculty, and education students should not be involved in developing and implementing admissions criteria.

2. Research and Development Capability. Among the 40,000-plus education professors are many with seriously underutilized research capabilities. Clearly, it is possible to set up and staff units devoted to research on teaching and teacher education. Research in education has most commonly been a matter of individual initiative. Teachers, school administrators, and

professors have common interest in training research and development and can be gathered together.

3. Articulation Between Courses and Field Experiences. The lack of articulation in most programs is underscored by the small amounts of preparation commonly provided to cooperating teachers and the paucity of involvement of faculty in school improvement programs. This would be easy to rectify.

4. Lack of Implementation of Training Innovations. This problem is probably best solved by a combination of program redesign and inservice for college faculty. Courses are not usually held in settings which permit the laboratory-type training which is required by most of the contemporary training technologies. Many require a combination of laboratory and field settings. In addition, relatively few faculty and cooperating teachers have expertise with them. Both of these conditions can be remedied with relative ease.

Conclusions

These suggestions are illustrative of improvements that can be made within the existing structures. Many others can be accomplished with careful planning and organization and, above all, the will to improve.

In the final analysis, after the dust has settled and the rhetoric has diminished, the onus for creating major improvement in the profession will be with the profession itself. In simplistic terms, it will require the collegial efforts of many individuals who believe that children can be better educated if their teachers are better prepared. Although boosts may come from external sources such as the public media and various federal, state, and local government agencies (including the courts), real improvement will occur only as a result of the efforts of the people within our profession.